

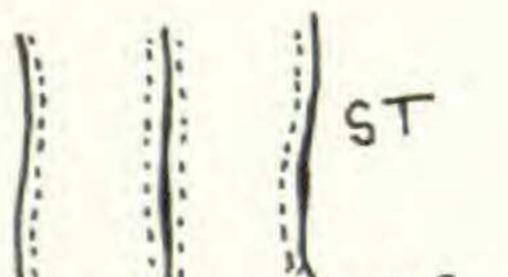
FIG. 1a (LEFT). Schematic diagram illustrating the arrangement of the elements of xylem-glomerulus in the nodal region of stems of *Dioscorea* and *Tamus*.

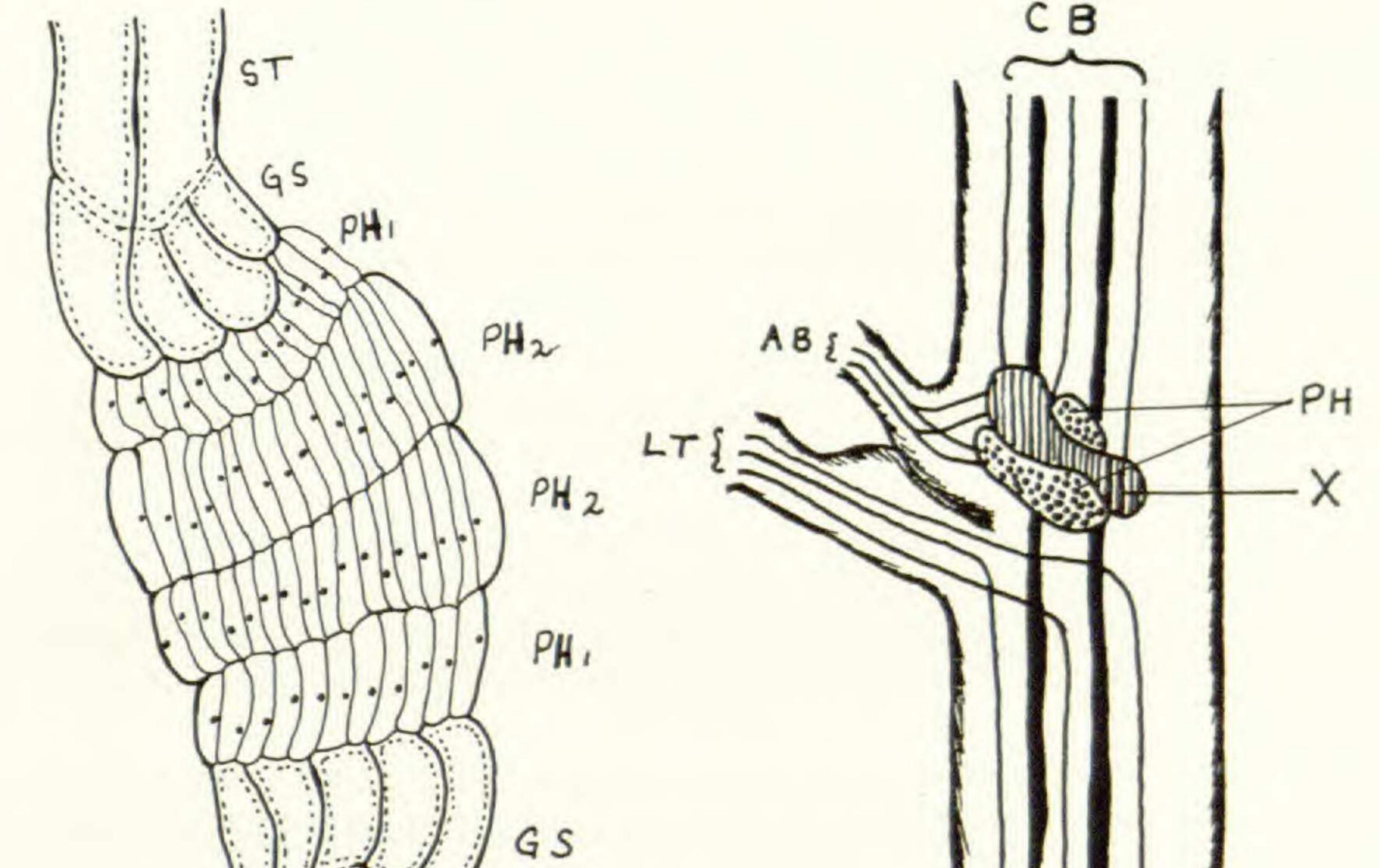
FIG. 1b (RIGHT). Vessel-like tracheid showing a reticulate perforation plate (lower) and bordered pits (upper).

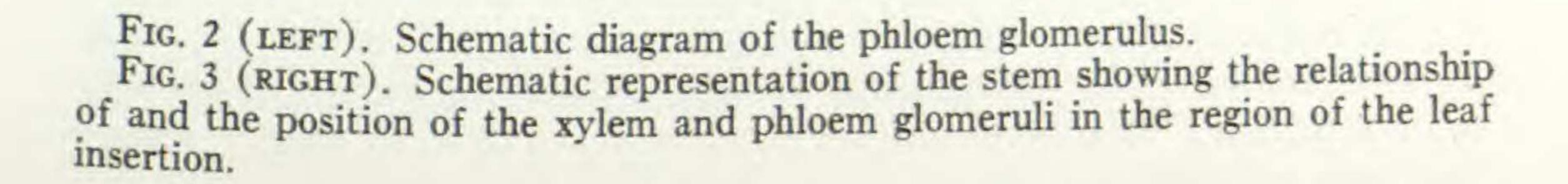
#### AYENSU, ANATOMY OF DIOSCOREACEAE 1969] 127

Xylem-glomerulus. Serial sections and macerations reveal that the mature xylem glomerulus is mainly composed of short tracheids of variable shape closely fitted together, thus resembling the distinct parts of a composite jig-saw puzzle. These peculiar tracheids are confined to the node and have large bordered pits. Presumably in the internodes water moves freely from vessel element to vessel element through the scalariform perforation plates. Exactly how materials are translocated through the nodal region is not clearly understood.

The phyllotaxy determines the width of the glomerulus in the nodes. In the species having simple, alternate leaves, a single glomerulus occupies about one-third of the area of the node. In an opposite (or decussate) arrangement, the glomerulus occupies about two-thirds of the nodal area. In species that exhibit a whorled arrangement, the glomerulus occupies almost all the nodal area. The tracheids vary in width and length within species. The widths varying from 40µ to 110µ, and lengths from 80µ to 260µ have been recorded for different species. These tracheids are closely fitted together, and have numerous pit-pairs on their common walls. The exact pathway of the contiguous tracheids between successive internodes is very complicated and variable within a species. (See FIGS. 4-12.) Longitudinal







G



# 128 JOURNAL OF THE ARNOLD ARBORETUM [vol. 50

sections and macerations of the node give a partial elucidation of the complicated sequence of the tissue structures. As Braun (1957) interpreted D. batatas and Tamus communis, a vessel just about to enter a node is attached to 1, 2, or 3 cells which Braun referred to as "vessel-like tracheids." The end wall of the vessel-like tracheid (VT) facing the vessel (v) has a reticulate perforation plate, while the other end wall has bordered pits (FIGS. 1a, b). The elements that constitute the bulk of the xylem-glomerulus lie between the vessel-like tracheids. The tracheids of the first group  $(T_1)$  are closely fitted to those of the second group  $(T_2)$ and to other successive tracheid groups, thus establishing the normal communication between them. The lengths of the tracheids vary from one node to the other within a species. In this respect variation in tracheid length does not have any taxonomic value. Those of the first few groups  $(T_1 - T_3)$  are shorter than those of  $T_4$  and  $T_5$ . It is also observed that the tracheid groups increase in number from  $T_1$  to  $T_5$ , presumably for enlarging the water conducting tissues in the node. The surface area of the water conducting tissues is further increased by the complex arrangement of many xylem-glomeruli at a node. Each glomerulus is S-shaped and longitudinally orientated. A xylem-glomerulus diagram (FIG. 1) is presented for the sake of simplicity, but the full complexity of it is demonstrated by FIGS. 4-12.

Phloem-glomerulus. The construction of the phloem-glomerulus (FIG. 2) follows essentially the scheme presented for the xylem-glomerulus (FIG. 1). The phloem-glomerulus is made up of what Braun (1957)

named "glomerulus sieve-tubes" (GS). Earlier, the same tissues had been called "funiculus cells" by Brouwer (1953) and "funnel-cells" by Mason (1926). Recently, Behnke (1965a) has called the same tissues "connecting sieve-tubes." Essentially, these tissues are composed of somewhat funnel-shaped, thin-walled cells having numerous small simple pits at the end walls adjoining the PH. They differ from ordinary sieve tubes in the presence of sieve plates only at the end adjoining the sieve tubes. The glomerulus sieve-tubes adjoin the cells that make up the bulk of the phloem glomerulus. These cells were designated "phloem-glomerulus cells" of the first (PH<sub>1</sub>), second (PH<sub>2</sub>), and third (PH<sub>3</sub>) orders by Braun (1957). Similar cells had earlier been called "bast tubulus" and "glomerulus cells" for PH<sub>1</sub> and PH<sub>2</sub> orders, respectively, by Brouwer (1953). PH<sub>1</sub> and PH<sub>2</sub> had also been called "Nodal sieve-tubes" and "Nodal sieve-elements" respectively by Behnke (1965a). The PH<sub>3</sub> of Braun may

actually be the over-lapping ends of PH2 and PH21.

The phloem-glomerulus cells vary in length, and as was observed in the case of the xylem-glomerulus, some of the cells of the phloem groups are shorter than others. In this case, the cells of the PH<sub>1</sub> order vary from  $20\mu$  to  $60\mu$  in length, while those of PH<sub>2</sub> vary from  $60\mu$  to  $140\mu$ . The cells of PH<sub>1</sub> and PH<sub>2</sub> have thin walls (about  $1\mu$  thick) with simple pits that can hardly be seen with a light microscope. Whether the walls are interconnected by cytoplasmic threads (plasmodesmata) or by any

# 1969] AYENSU, ANATOMY OF DIOSCOREACEAE 129

other mechanism has not been demonstrated with the light microscope. Dr. Behnke of Bonn University informed me that his electron microscope studies show that plasmodesmata are indeed present in the cells of  $PH_1$  and  $PH_2$ . His recent publications (Behnke, 1965a, b, c) support his findings. It is, however, certain that these phloem cells are specialized and differ from sieve tubes and sieve cells of ordinary phloem tissue. Microchemical tests reveal the absence of starch-grains from the phloem-glomerulus cells; the surrounding parenchyma cells possess starch. The histochemistry of the phloem will have to await critical studies.

Cleared and stained portions of young and old stems reveal that at the

node (Fig. 3) three major vascular bundles (LT) enter the petiole from the stem through the node without joining other vascular bundles, coming through the underlying internode as peripheral vascular bundles. These leaf-trace bundles are V-shaped.

The vascular bundles of the stem axis lying in front of the point of entry of the leaf traces, and those of the inner and outer circles become enlarged and join to form the xylem and phloem glomeruli (X, PH). These glomeruli lie obliquely above each leaf insertion at the same height as the axillary bud (AB). Opposite the outer circle of the vascular bundles in the internode they appear somewhat towards the outside and project into the base of the axillary bud or the lateral shoot. Five cauline vascular bundles leave a glomerulus into the internode above (CB), but only two enter it from below (GB). The latter are the characteristic large vascular bundles which are arranged in the gaps between the three leaftrace bundles, which lie on the inside of the stem furrows. Hence the five cauline vascular bundles forming the circle are made up of the two vascular bundles from the glomerulus (GB) and the three vascular bundles of the leaf-trace (LT). The vascular bundles of the axillary buds come from the glomerulus directly. Just after they leave the glomerulus, each divides into two (an upper xylem branch and a lower phloem branch), which come from the upper and lower regions of the glomerulus respectively. Occasionally the lower phloem branch subdivides into two with one establishing itself above the xylem branch.

### DISCUSSION

The structure of the xylem and phloem glomeruli in the nodes of the Dioscoreaceae seems to be unique amongst the monocotyledons. Futhermore, the presence of tracheids and the distinct type of sieve elements in the node has considerable implications regarding the evolutionary history of these tissues in the angiosperms. The anatomical studies of the xylem by Bailey and Tupper (1918) showed that the most logical phylogenetic sequence is the derivation of vessels from tracheids in the angiosperms. Cheadle (1943) working with the xylem of monocotyledons confirmed Bailey's work. In the light of the above theory it is interesting to examine the developmental aspects

# 130 JOURNAL OF THE ARNOLD ARBORETUM [VOL. 50

of the tracheal elements in the node of the Dioscoreaceae. The bulk of the xylem glomerulus is made up of tracheids which are considered primitive in the phylogenetic sense. Similarly, the cells of the phloem glomerulus are considered to be of a relatively primitive type (cf. Braun, 1957, and the papers he quotes).

It is significant that such a difference can occur in a stem with primitive structures in the nodes and more advanced structures in the internodes. Bailey (1956) stated that "It is now clearly demonstrated that evolutionary modification of the xylem of stems and roots is not necessarily closely synchronized with phylogenetic trends in the specialization of the angiospermic flower. Either trend of evolution may be accelerated or retarded in relation to the other." The above can be extended with a statement that vessel development in an individual part of an organ can be delayed or advanced within that particular part as demonstrated in the node and internode of the Dioscoreaceae respectively. This study demonstrates that in the midst of the complex nodal vascular system lies an orderly and systematic mechanism that permits the transport of assimilatory materials through the stems of the Dioscoreaceae. However, any attempt to gain full understanding of the exact pathway, and therefore, the movement of material through the phloem glomerulus must first confirm the present observations which are based on a reconstruction from serial microtome sections. A more reliable understanding of the pathway will hopefully be gained when the writer is able to study the vascular system of the Dioscoreaceae using the motion-picture analy-

sis technique employed by Zimmermann and Tomlinson (1965, 1967).

The complexity of the phloem glomerulus in the Dioscoreaceae raises some fundamental questions about the current hypotheses on transport mechanisms in plants. Esau, Currier and Cheadle (1957) summarized the hypotheses as (a) mass or pressure flow; (b) mass flow together with activities of parenchyma cells associated with the phloem that account for the turgor gradients necessary for mass flow; (c) transport of solutes in the sieve tube along protoplasmic interfaces; (d) accelerated solute movements in sieve tubes resulting apparently from some special kind of cytoplasmic movement or flow; (e) independent solute movement resulting from one or more as yet unknown active transfer processes that occur in the sieve element cytoplasm.

The unique anatomical characteristics of the phloem glomerulus in this family seem to suggest that perhaps more than one of the above methods is responsible for the movement of assimilatory substances in the Dioscoreaceae. Arisz's (1952) suggestion that every substance moves its own way, and that different mechanisms may be involved in translocation should be considered in the light of the anatomical variation in the phloem of this family.

Although I have no proof as to the exact function of the phloem glomerulus, it seems likely that rapid translocation is achieved by the numerous cells that form the bulk of the nodal region.

# 1969] AYENSU, ANATOMY OF DIOSCOREACEAE

SUMMARY

131

The complex nodal anatomy which is unique and basically uniform in the Dioscoreaceae, especially in Dioscorea and Tamus, is described. The width of the two masses of tissues referred to as glomeruli is correlated with the phyllotaxy in each species. The xylem-glomerulus is composed of numerous short tracheids of various sizes and shapes which are closely fitted together. The phloem glomerulus, whose construction is essentially that of the xylem-glomerulus, consists of thin-walled cells without visible pitting and sieve areas. Because of the presence of primitive xylem and phloem structures in the nodes in contrast to more advanced structures in the internodes, it is postulated that vessel development in an individual part of an organ can be delayed or advanced within that particular part as shown in the node and internode of the Dioscoreaceae respectively. The peculiar nature of the vascular bundle glomeruli is presumed to have some effect on the rate of fluid transport in the stem. It is suggested that another technique, such as the motion-picture analysis method, should be employed to study further the nodal structure and its relation to translocation.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am very grateful to Drs. P. B. Tomlinson, R. H. Eyde, and H. Robinson for reading the manuscript.

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132 JOURNAL OF THE ARNOLD ARBORETUM [vol. 50

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#### EXPLANATION OF PLATES

FIGS. 4–12. Longitudinal sections of the stem nodal region illustrating the complexity of the xylem and phloem glomeruli,  $\times$  80.

## PLATE I

FIG. 4. Dioscorea hirtiflora Benth., showing an example of the meeting point between the phloem glomerulus cells  $(PH_2)$  of the second order, and a transverse section of a sieve tube (ST).

FIG. 5. Dioscorea discolor Kunth, interlacing of xylem glomerulus cells. Arrow points to a transverse section of a vessel (V) just entering the node.

#### PLATE II

FIG. 6. Dioscorea schimperiana Hochst., exhibiting general orientation of xylem and phloem glomeruli. Vessel element (V); phloem glomerulus of the first  $(PH_1)$  and second  $(PH_2)$  orders. Xylem glomerulus cells (XG), phloem glomerulus cells (PHG).

FIG. 7. Dioscorea multiflora Mart., showing a vessel element (V) and xylem glomerulus cells (XG).

#### PLATE III

FIG. 8. Dioscorea luzonensis Schauer, showing transverse sections of phloem glomerulus cells (PHG).

FIG. 9. Dioscorea composita Hemsl. (D. tepinapensis Uline ex Knuth).

Arrows pointing to vessel (V), vessel-tracheid (VT) and xylem glomerulus in transverse section (XG).

#### PLATE IV

FIG. 10. Dioscorea pentaphylla L., end plates of a vessel-tracheid (VT) and a vessel element (V).

FIG. 11. Dioscorea dregeana (Kunth) Th. Dur. & Schinz, end plate of vesseltracheid (VT) and phloem glomerulus cells (PHG).

### PLATE V

FIG. 12. Tamus communis L., exhibiting the presence of xylem (XG) and phloem (PHG) glomeruli.

PLATE I

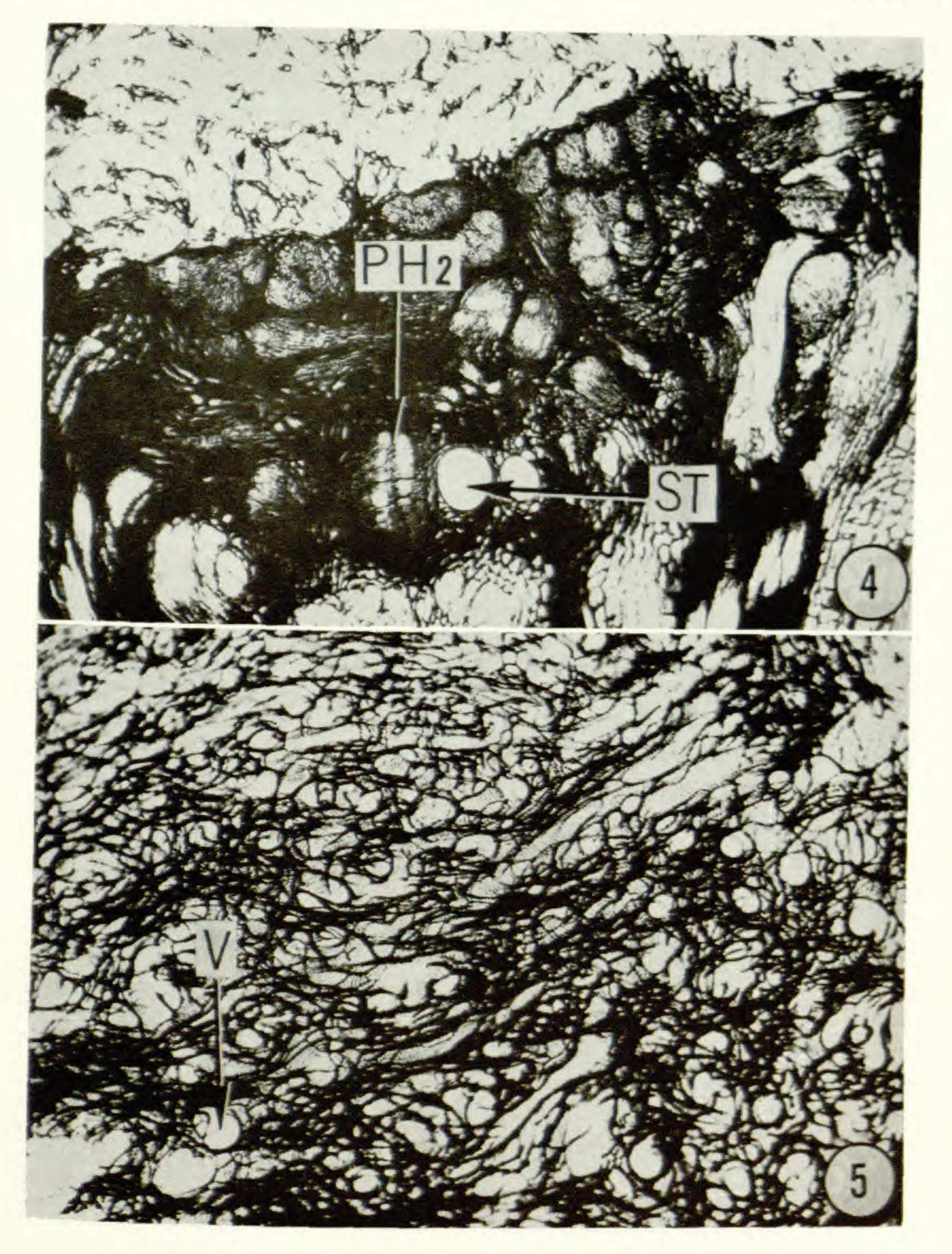


PLATE II

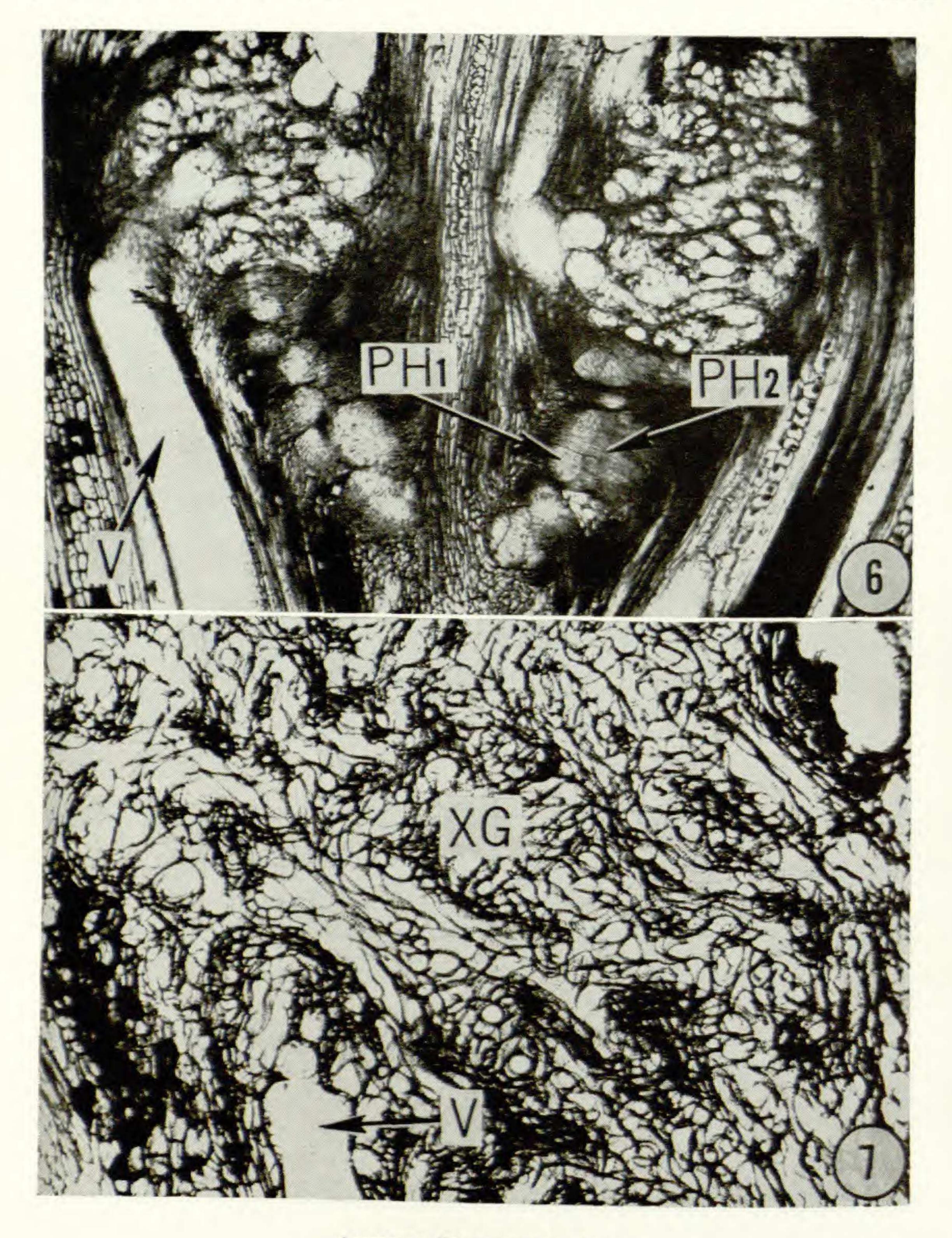


PLATE III

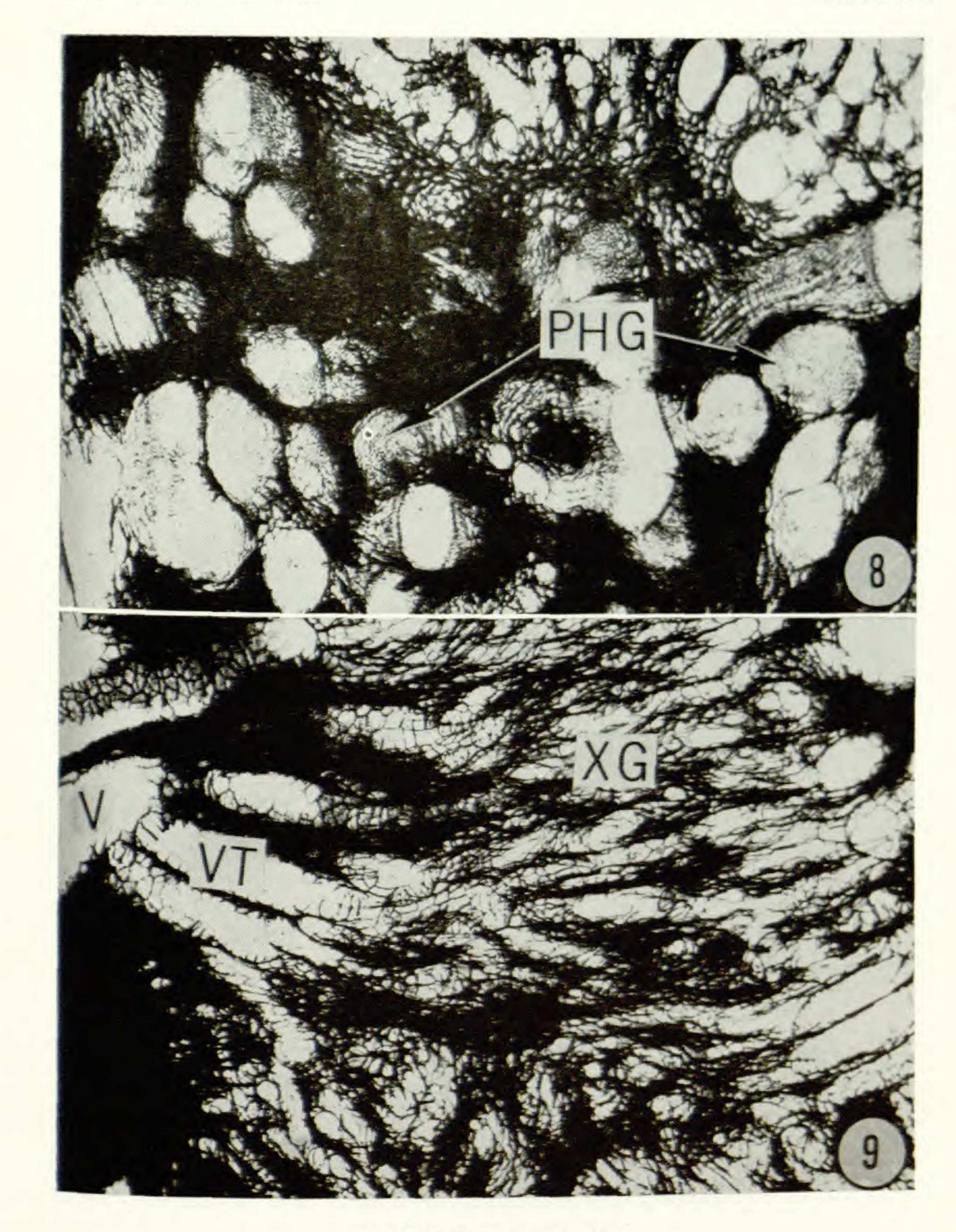


PLATE IV

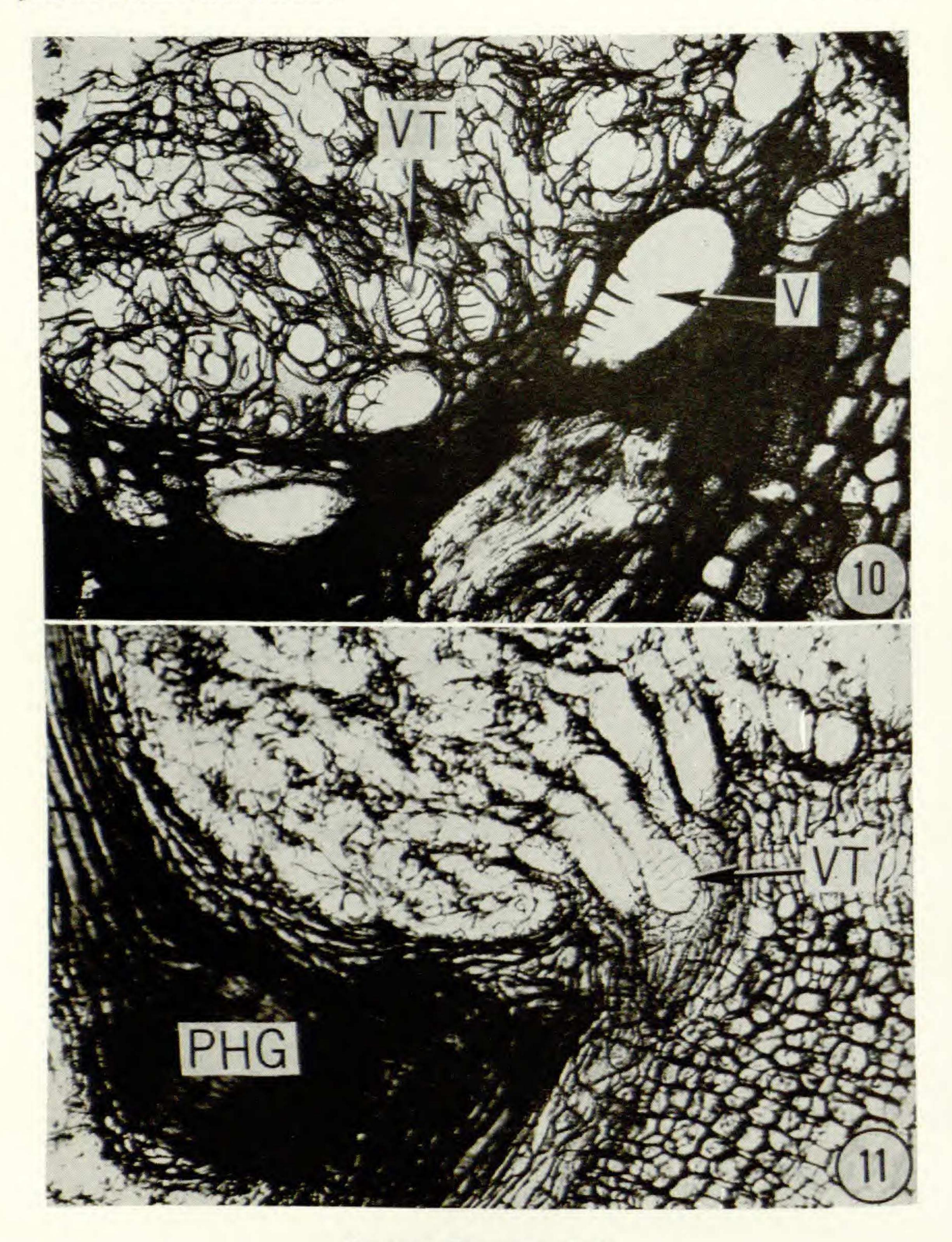
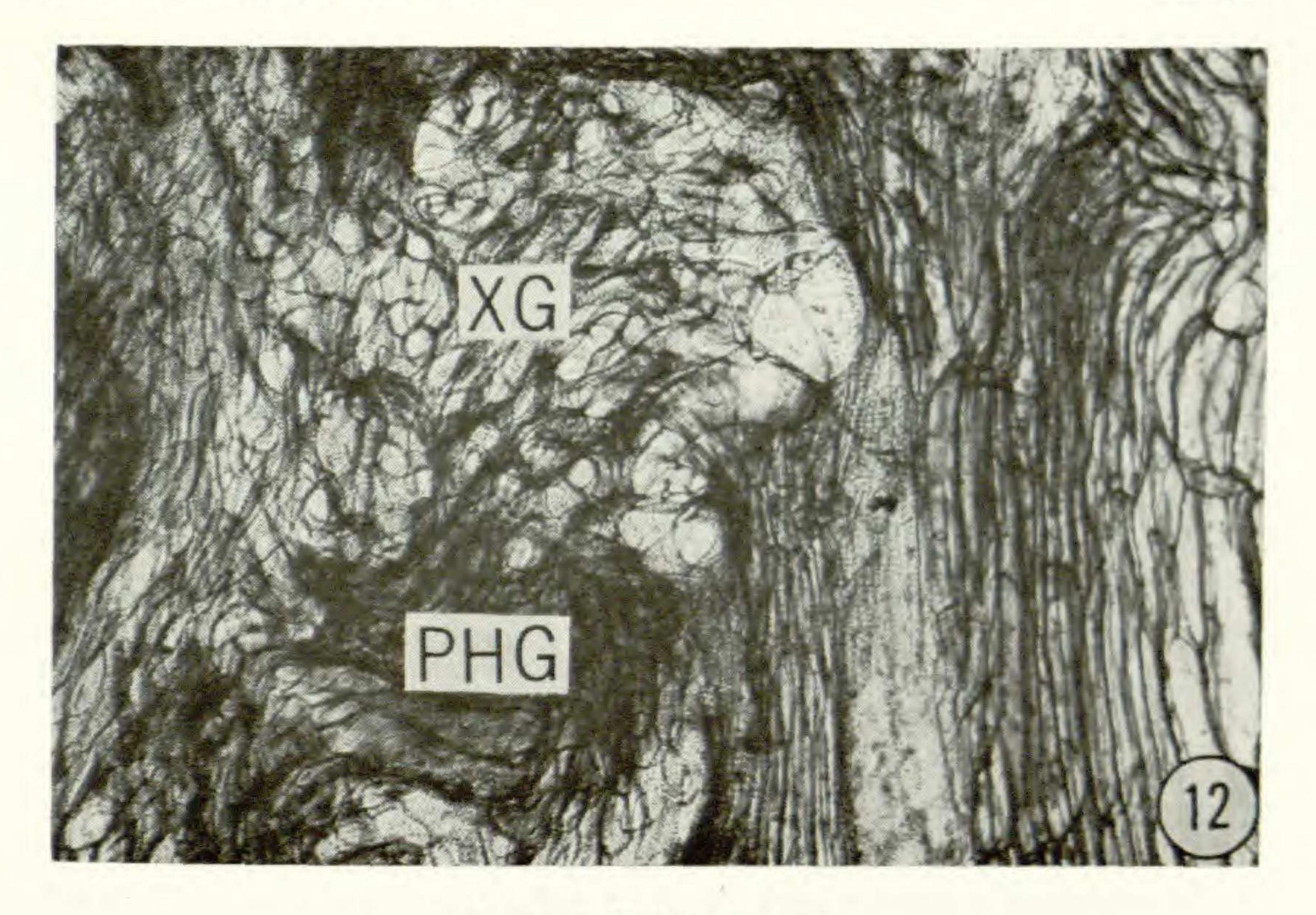


PLATE V





# 138 JOURNAL OF THE ARNOLD ARBORETUM [vol. 50

# ANATOMY OF THE PALM RHAPIS EXCELSA, VII. FLOWERS \* N. W. Uhl, L. O. Morrow, and H. E. Moore, Jr.

THE GENUS Rhapis is one of a group of six genera in the subfamily Coryphoideae centered in the southeastern United States (Rhapidophyllum) and southeastern Asia (Liberbaileya, Maxburretia, Trachycarpus, Rhapis) with a Mediterranean outlier (Chamaerops). These genera are notable for complete apocarpy coupled with an apparently specialized inflorescence (relative to the subfamily as a whole), polygamy or dioecism, and slight to marked morphological distinction between staminate and pistillate flowers. Among them, Rhapis appears to be most highly specialized in having greater dissimilarity between staminate and pistillate flowers and a gamophyllous corolla. That perfect flowers may sometimes occur is suggested by the formation of apparently normal seed on an isolated pistillate plant at Cornell University and further by the comments of Tomlinson and Zimmermann (1968). In young stages of pistillate flowers, anthers appear normal but in the mature flowers they are small and do not normally contain pollen. There is a basic similarity between staminate and pistillate flowers in young stages. Differences — functional versus abortive carpels and anthers and elongate staminate corolla tube - are obvious only in later and mature stages. The nature of most palms makes morphogenetic experimentation difficult. Rhapis, however, is a small palm (Zimmermann & Tomlinson, 1965) and readily grown in the tropics and subtropics or as a pot plant in greenhouses. When the present anatomical series is complete, it may prove an excellent subject for studies of development and morphogenetic experiments on different aspects of flowering. The purpose of this paper is to describe the anatomy of the two morphological types of flowers in order to continue the anatomical series on Rhapis, to add to a survey of floral anatomy in palms, and to provide the basis for further work.

#### MATERIAL AND METHODS

A partial description of the floral anatomy of *Rhapis* was previously prepared by one of us (Morrow, 1965) from collections vouchered by

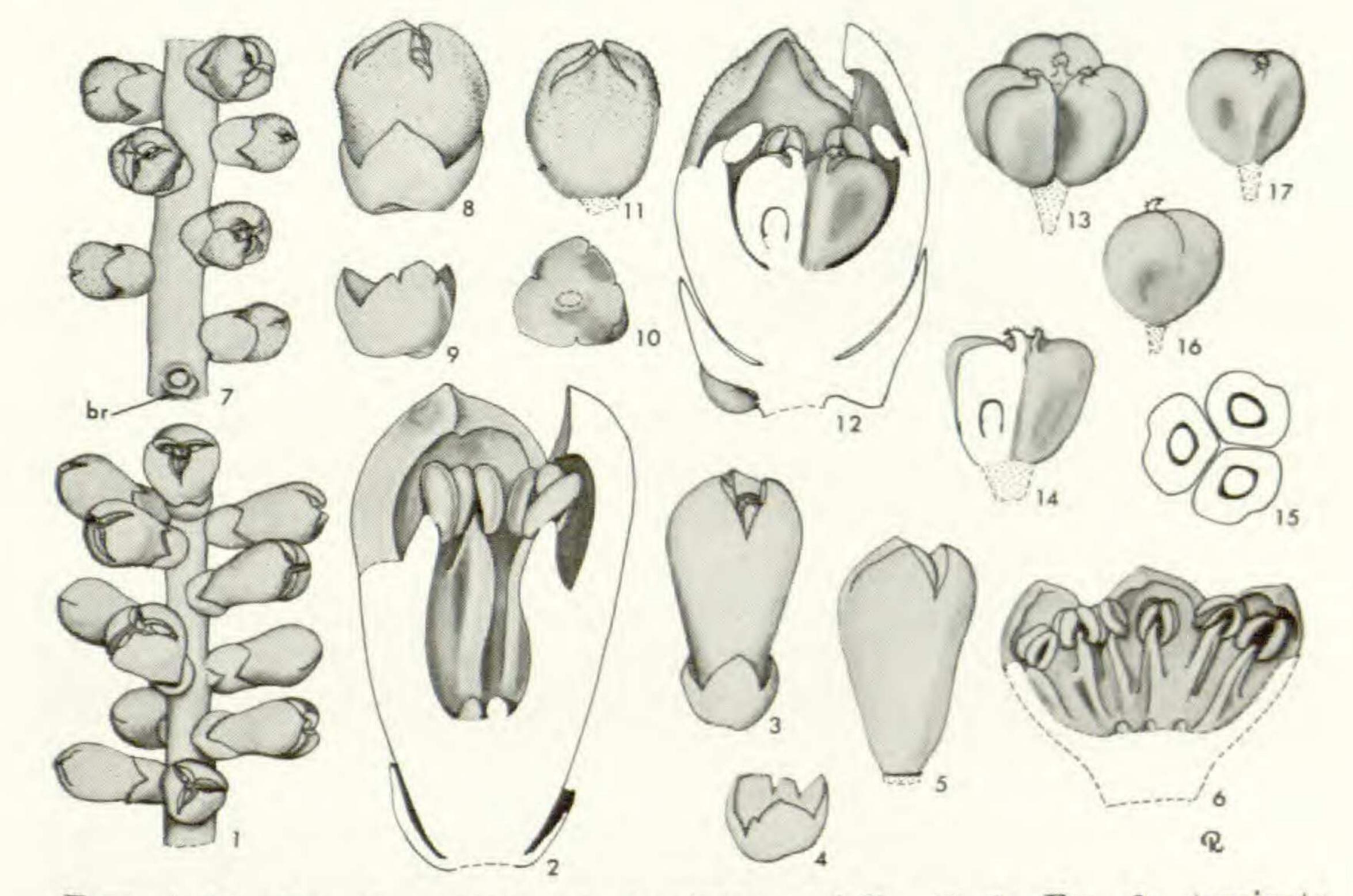
\* This study was undertaken at the request of and in collaboration with Drs. P. B. Tomlinson and M. H. Zimmermann. We would like to thank them for this invitation and their interest in the work which has been supported by National Science Foundation Grants G-18770, GB-3528. Previous papers in this series have appeared in Jour. Arnold Arb. volumes 46 (1965), 47 (1966), 48 (1967), and 49 (1968).

# 1969] UHL, MORROW, & MOORE, RHAPIS EXCELSA 139

Read 701 and 774. Further study of this material and of new collections (Moore & Uhl 9561, 9562) has resulted in the more complete description presented in this paper. Staminate and pistillate flowers (Moore & Uhl 9561, 9562) at anthesis were cleared and sectioned as described previously (Uhl, 1966). Serial sections were studied in polarized light and by cinematography (Zimmermann & Tomlinson, 1965), a technique we are finding most useful for analyzing flowers where many bundles are present.

#### RACHILLAE

As described in a previous paper of this series (Tomlinson & Zimmermann, 1968), both staminate and pistillate inflorescences of *Rhapis* are small panicles with up to three orders of branching. Bract to branch relationship, although somewhat obscured by adnation, reveals a simple monopodial system similar to that described for *Nannorrhops ritchiana* (Tomlinson & Moore, 1968). Flowers are inserted in irregular spirals (FIGS. 1, 7) on branches of the first, second or third orders and on the terminal part of the main axis, these axes being rachillae as defined by Tomlinson and Moore (1968).



FIGS. 1-17. FIG. 1, portion of staminate rachilla,  $\times$  2; FIG. 2, staminate

flower in vertical section,  $\times$  8; FIG. 3, staminate flower,  $\times$  4; FIG. 4, staminate calyx,  $\times$  4; FIG. 5, staminate flower, calyx removed,  $\times$  4; FIG. 6, staminate flower expanded,  $\times$  4; FIG. 7, portion of pistillate rachilla,  $\times$  2; FIG. 8, pistillate flower,  $\times$  4; FIG. 9, pistillate calyx, exterior view,  $\times$  4; FIG. 10, pistillate calyx, interior view,  $\times$  4; FIG. 11, pistillate flower, calyx removed,  $\times$  4; FIG. 12, pistillate flower, vertical section,  $\times$  8; FIG. 13, gynoecium,  $\times$  8; FIG. 14, gynoecium, vertical section,  $\times$  8; FIG. 15, carpels in transection,  $\times$  8; FIG. 16, one carpel, dorsal view,  $\times$  8; FIG. 17, one carpel, ventral view,  $\times$  8. DETAILS: br, bractlet.